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ABSTRACT

This article examines the teacher training program at the Canada-China Language Centre in Beijing, China, and the communicative teaching methodology that it employs in helping scientists, government officials, and other professionals improve their English language skills. The staff consist of both Canadian and Chinese teachers of English, who jointly developed the communicative approach. It combines a modern communicative model, with students engaging in genuine conversation and interaction, along with a more traditional, form-focused approach, that allows students to step out of the communication process and examine the formal properties of the language they are learning. Language teacher educators hoping to impart this methodology on student teachers must realize that it requires teachers to have strong: (1) procedural knowledge; (2) classroom management skills; (3) intervention skills; (4) pedagogical skills; and (5) linguistic proficiency. Following this is a discussion of the teacher training techniques used to implement this methodology at the Canada-China Language Centre. (MDM)

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Preparing Teachers to use a Meaning and Structure
Based Methodology

Elizabeth Gatbonton

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PREPARING TEACHERS TO USE A MEANING AND STRUCTURE BASED METHODOLOGY

Elizabeth Gatbonton

Generally, when an institution is about to adopt a new curriculum or methodology it prepares its teachers by inviting them to participate in a teacher training program. The teacher training program may come in the form of an in-service training, a teacher recycling program, or a combination of both. In the in-service training format, the teachers attend formal workshops, usually after class hours, held in the premises of the teaching institution. They discuss the goals, rationale, and procedure of the new methodology. Depending upon the time available, the theoretical workshops are accompanied by practical workshops where new teaching materials illustrating the new methodology are demonstrated by appropriate experts (e.g., a teaching consultant, the curriculum and/or materials developer). Or, the teachers themselves try out the new materials on their own or under the supervision of experts. During the practical workshops the teachers are asked to record (e.g., they write journals or diaries, fill out questionnaires) and reflect upon what they have observed about their own teaching practices as well as those of others in the hope that they themselves come to the conclusion about what to keep or change (Wallace, 1991, Richards & Nunan, 1990).

In the teacher recycling format a few teachers are usually handpicked and then encouraged to take a leave of absence (most cases, paid leave) from their teaching duties in order to take courses that would prepare them to implement the curriculum. The credits gained can be applied towards a specific certificate or degree. In most cases, the courses would include both theory (e.g., curriculum development or course design, language acquisition) and practice (e.g., they have a practicum of a few weeks in a real school under the supervision of a full time teacher trainer). In a combination of in-service and teacher recycling format, only a few teachers may at first be selected to be trained. Then, when they are ready, they take a turn in conducting workshops for the benefit of colleagues who have not yet had the training.

But what happens when time and the exigencies of the program do not allow opportunity for formal training programs such as described above? Review of literature on teacher training and observation of various teacher training situations reveals that the most common option taken in this case is to proceed with implementation without a formal teacher training program. The teachers learn to implement the curriculum as they go along. This option is, however, usually

adopted only when, first, the new curriculum does not radically depart from what the teachers have already used or from what they have been trained to do during their teacher training years. Second, when the teachers are all equally experienced and possess the necessary confidence to make any new curriculum work.

There are, however, many teacher training cases where teachers who are experienced and seasoned must use the curriculum alongside those who are new and inexperienced with it. These cases are typical in language teaching situations in countries like Asia, Africa, South America, etc., where western English speaking language teachers are commonly invited to work with local teachers in the hope that the latter will learn new teaching skills and methodologies. The curriculum used in these situations is often: a) a curriculum imported from the English speaking teachers' countries, with minor adjustments to suit the local teaching context, b) a curriculum designed by curriculum experts in the non-English speaking teachers' country, or c) a curriculum designed by both the local non-English speaking teachers and their English speaking visitors. Case A above results in a situation where the visiting teachers are experienced with the curriculum but the native teachers are not. Case B involves local teachers who are experienced while the visiting teachers are inexperienced with the actual curriculum itself but have expertise in general learning and teaching principles; hence they have been asked to help the local teachers implement their curriculum better. In Case C, where the curriculum is a joint product of the two teaching groups, both are experienced with certain aspects of the methodology and inexperienced with other aspects of it. If training is held for scenarios A and B, the training is directed towards the group with less experience. In Case C, the training is for both groups.

In this paper I will discuss a type C teacher training program such as found at the Canada-China Language Centre in Beijing. I think this teacher training situation is interesting to examine because it compares with many others in Asia but is different enough from teacher training situations in the West, where most of our assumptions and theories of teacher training have been developed. The methodology that we have developed at the CCLC can be used in many language programs in this part of the world. Consequently, the teacher training program we designed will be interesting to many of us here. I will begin by describing briefly the Canada-China Language Centre, then I will describe the communicative methodology we have developed for it. Next, I will outline the areas of teacher expertise needed to implement this communicative methodology. Finally, I will discuss the teacher training program developed to help the teachers attain the expertise they are lacking.

The Canada-China Language Centre (henceforth CCLC) is a language training program jointly administered by Saint Mary's University of Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, and Beijing Normal University in Beijing, China. It is funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) as a service program for its joint projects with China. Its primary mandate is to help Chinese professionals and scientists raise their level of competence in English or French so that they would be able to benefit maximally from living in Canada and working or studying in its educational and business institutions. These students are chosen from different government ministries participating in joint ventures with Canada and they represent different fields of specializations ranging from medicine, engineering, translation, forest fire fighting, and agriculture.

The teaching staff consists of Canadian teachers recruited from across Canada and Chinese teachers from Beijing Normal University. Since the program is funded by Canada's official aid agency, both groups of teachers do not only teach but also participate in a transfer of skills program geared towards preparing the Chinese to take the Centre over in time.

The CCLC Communicative Approach

To promote the goals of the Canada-China Language Centre program, we developed a methodology that integrates the salient features of traditional Chinese teaching methodologies into a western based communicative methodology. Since Chinese teaching methodologies still have a strong focus on form (they rely greatly upon the use of grammatical explanations, text analysis, and memorization), we designed our communicative methodology to allow a place for form-focused activities such as these without violating its communicative nature. The basic premise of the CCLC methodology is that communication is the main means of promoting acquisition but that attention to the formal properties of sentences used in communication facilitates this acquisition.

While attempts to combine communication and formal instruction in language pedagogy are not new, the CCLC methodology is unique in having been designed according to a combination model suggested by Brumfit (1979) and Ellis (1982), a model which proposes a progression of classroom activities from communication to formal instruction. Most existing form and meaning-integrated methodologies are based on a model that proposes a progression in the opposite direction: from formal instruction to communication (Celce-Murcia & Hiles, 1988), from skill getting to skill using (Rivers & Temperley, 1978), or from

mechanical to meaningful to communicative drills before free communication (Paulston, 1971; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; see also Weinert, 1987).

Between the two models, we felt that we would be better able to maintain the primacy of communication in our methodology by developing it within the communication-before-formal instruction model. Indeed, by putting communication ahead and designing the activities so that the students encounter their *i+1* (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) while communicating, we ensure that their first exposure to and learning of new target elements occur in communicative contexts. In contrast, in the formal instruction-before-communication model, the students' initial exposure to new target elements is necessarily conducted outside the communicative context. The reason for this is the following: The purpose of formal instruction is basically to help the learner note the structural properties of utterances (e.g., their intonation and stress patterns, word order, underlying structure) and abstract from these, generalizations about the language. In order to lead learners to note these properties, the utterances have to be presented in such a way that their commonality can be easily pointed out. In most cases, this means listing them in contiguous order on the board. For example, to show the underlying structure of utterances such as *I had peanut butter* one must have other examples with similar surface structure: *I ate lettuce, I bought lettuce*, and present them in a string so that their common properties immediately become apparent (Dacanay, 1967). One cannot, however, do this without taking the utterances out of context. There is no communication exchange in the natural everyday use of language that I can think of that would call for the use of these utterances in the juxtaposed manner described here.

By adopting one model and not the other, I do not mean to suggest that one is better or less suited than the other *per se*. The value of each can be judged only in relation to the goal for which it is used. I think the formal instruction-before-communication model is best suited when the aim of teaching is grammatical knowledge. When we developed the curriculum for our Centre (Gatbonton & Gu, 1990), the goals and the time constraints of the program (students have only one term chance to be at the Centre) led us to argue against a structure-based syllabus and opt for a communication oriented, task-based one. Given this, we felt the formal instruction-before-communication model would not be suitable but the communication-before-formal instruction model would be.

Two phase process: In terms of details, the communicative methodology we have developed assumes that adult learners will benefit from a teaching process that involves two distinct but nevertheless highly integrated phases: a Communication Phase where they engage in genuine communication and a

Consolidation Phase where they step out of the communication process to examine in greater detail the formal properties of the language used.

In the **Communication Phase** the students participate in authentic communication exchanges such as role plays, survey activities, interviews, games, simulations. Authenticity is defined not in terms of how closely the activities physically resemble their counterparts in the real world but how closely they replicate the psychological characteristics of real communication (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988). Real communication occurs when there is a genuine exchange of meanings accompanied by the presence of pressures and tensions arising from not knowing ahead of time what to say and from being alone responsible in directing the flow of conversation and terminating it.

In our methodology, we assumed learning and acquisition to occur only when participation in the communication activities is of the kind that a) allows the students to learn and rehearse at the same time and b) allows the students to learn target elements at the moment of need. Most existing communicative methodologies exclude the notion of rehearsal; our methodology makes it a central component. We designed the activities of the communication phase not only to be genuinely communicative (i.e., participants pursue concrete goals such as producing a chart or table, winning a prize, constructing an actual object, writing a memo that is actually sent, preparing a report that gets actually delivered) but also to be inherently repetitive. Inherently repetitive means that repetition is integral in the procedure of the activities themselves and not just simply added on for language learning purposes. To understand what this means, we can illustrate with one of the modules in our speaking course, *Class Profile*. In this module, the students are asked to draw a profile of the class; that is, to describe the common characteristics of students attending the class. We designed the procedure of this activity in such a way that the goal can only be attained if everyone is interviewed in class, an activity requiring the repetition of the same action (someone asking another person questions) using the same set of questions. This activity is genuinely communicative because the students exchange real information; real information is gathered, classified, and then made the basis of the generalizations formed about the class as a whole. Another illustration is a reading activity in which the students have to report on the contents of several articles on the same topic. To make such a report the students have to repeat the same steps: read each article, summarize its contents, then pool the information derived from all the articles.

In addition to participation being simultaneously rehearsal and learning we also designed the procedure of our activities so that learning new target utterances occurs at the moment of and is dictated by need. Basically the procedure is as follows: After a brief but important preparatory stage where the teacher explains the aim and purpose of the activity and draws out from the student the background knowledge that they need to carry out the activity, the students are asked to begin a particular communication task (e.g., They complete a chart by gathering information from their classmates; in a reading class, they read an article to gather a specified set of information). They do this task in any or a combination of different student participation patterns such as doing the task alone (Individual Work), doing it in pairs (Paired Work), or in small groups (Small Group Activity) or with the rest of the class (Whole Class Activity).

Once set up, the students are left to complete the task using whatever linguistic resources they can muster at this stage. For as long as their resources are sufficient for the task, no intervention takes place. The teacher merely directs and facilitates the activity and observes the students' behaviour. Once however, the students experience "difficulty" (and they will, if the activities are properly designed; for example, they are unable to find the right utterances to express what they want, they cannot say a particular utterance correctly, or they produce utterances less ably than expected at their level such as when their intonation and sentence stress patterns and/or pronunciation render the utterances less intelligible than desired, or their vocabulary is less sophisticated than expected at this stage), the teacher makes available the resources they need at the moment of need. The teacher can accomplish this in two ways. She either makes them aware of the missing utterance or a better version of it through accepted sociolinguistic intrusions into the communication act just at the moment they falter; or she seizes a convenient pause in the communication act to place these utterances at the students' disposal. In the first instance, she simply prompts the missing utterances as would a fluent speaker do to another who is temporarily groping for the right word or phrase. Or, she simply models a more acceptable version of the students' imperfect utterances in the manner of one seeking confirmation or signalling a misunderstanding. In the other instance, (done only when the difficulty is common to many students), she writes the appropriate versions of these sentences on the board and asks the students to do a few things with them, ranging from simply repeating them to quickly (and the emphasis is on quickly) practising their intonation and stress patterns.

In the **Consolidation Phase** the students are led to focus in greater detail upon the utterances that they have earlier used; in particular, on utterances that gave them difficulty during the **Communication Phase**. Depending on the nature of the difficulty, the **Consolidation Phase** activities can take different forms.

1) If the students' problem with the utterances is inability to produce them rapidly and smoothly, the **Consolidation Phase** can take the form of providing them with fluency inducing exercises. These are exercises whose main aim is to make the students repeat in context verbatim sentences already learned.

2) If the problem is accuracy, the activities can range from doing exercises leading the students to produce correct versions of utterances they tend to produce erroneously (I went to bed at seven instead of I went to the bed at seven) to analyzing the formal properties of sentences (e.g. explaining the grammatical properties of the sentence, its intonation and stress patterns) to analyzing the relationship among the utterances in a text (e.g., discourse analysis).

3) If the students can already produce these utterances but should learn more sophisticated ways of saying the same things, the exercises can range from looking for alternative utterances (e.g., vocabulary expanding exercises) to reading dialogues and paragraphs where more sophisticated versions of the target utterances are used.

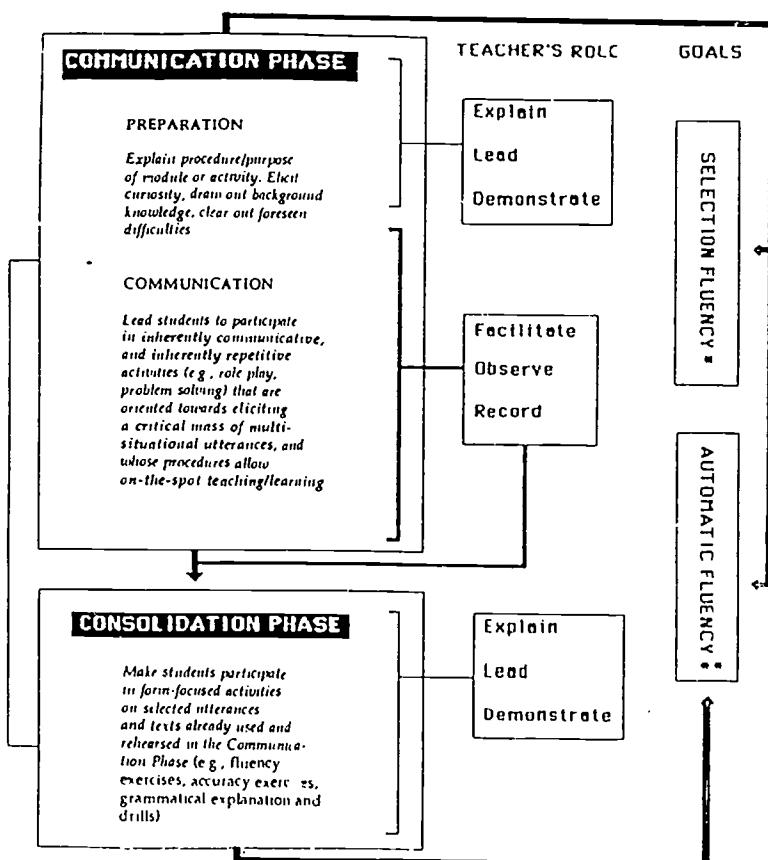
4) In some cases the content of the texts may be more important to focus on so the consolidation exercises are those examining content (e.g., the meaning of the utterances, their illocutionary force, or socio-cultural uses).

Integration of Communication and Consolidation Phases: Needless to say the success of this teaching process lies in how well the two phases are integrated. In designing our methodology we insured integration not so much by making the **Consolidation Phase** physically follow the **Communication Phase** but by making the **Consolidation Phase** strictly dependent upon the former for its aims and procedure. In practice this means arranging things so that consolidation activities are conducted only in response to a need identified during the **Communication Phase**. For example, if it is clear during the **Communication Phase** that the students have problems with past tense utterances, then the consolidation activities will focus on this tense. If the students have control of this aspect, then others can be focused upon.

Integration is also achieved by making the type of Consolidation Phase activity dependent upon the nature of difficulty the students have with the utterances. Thus, whether the consolidation phase activities will take direct shots at promoting accuracy and smooth rapid delivery, whether they will focus on explicating points of grammar or structure, or analyzing the content structure of utterances will depend on whether these are what the students need to be able to carry handle their communication tasks in the real world.

The following diagram shows how our two-phase process works.

**Figure 1: The CCLC Methodology
(Communication-before-formal instruction Model)**



*Selection fluency - knowing what to say, when, to whom, where

*Automatic fluency - ability to produce utterances correctly and without undue hesitation and pauses

The diagram shows the two phases we have discussed, the role of the teacher in each phase, and the contribution of each phase to the goals of promoting fluency. Fluency is defined here in terms of two components (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988): The ability to know what to say to whom and when (selection fluency) and the ability to produce utterances smoothly and rapidly, without unnecessary hesitation and pauses (automatic production fluency). Note that in this model, the Communication Phase contributes to the promotion of both automatic and selection fluency; the Consolidation Phase contributes to the promotion of automatic fluency.

The diagram also shows that the teachers play a wide variety of roles: At the beginning of each phase, they play the role of organizers whose main task is to pave the way for the activity to be done smoothly. In most cases, this involves making the students aware of the purpose and goal of the activity and in explaining/demonstrating to them the procedure. It also involves drawing out the students' background knowledge that will help them understand what to do (e.g., current knowledge of topic in a reading or listening activity). During the main stage of the Communication Phase, they play the role of facilitators, observers, and recorders. Once they have set up the activity, they take note of the students's behaviour, noting their difficulties. Later, they make quick decisions about what type of consolidation activities could address these difficulties. During the Consolidation Phase, they lead the students to rehearse certain utterances in context, and/or help them make generalizations about the utterances they have practised and (in some cases) analyzed.

Teacher Training Concerns

The question for teacher training is what kind of expertise teachers need in order to handle the demands of this combined methodology. I will identify some areas where teachers must have expertise in and explain their training needs in each. Then, I will discuss teacher training techniques that would be useful in helping those who lack expertise in any of these areas.

Areas of expertise: To implement our combined methodology I have identified five areas where the teachers should show strong competence. 1) Procedural knowledge 2) Classroom management skills 3) Intervention skills. 4) Pedagogical skills, and (5) Linguistic proficiency

Procedural knowledge refers to knowing the basic procedure of each of the major components of our combined methodology: i.e., knowing how to handle the communication activities in the Communication Phase and how to conduct form-focusing activities in the Consolidation Phase. This knowledge also involves knowing how to apply the general communicative approach to each of the skill areas; in other words, how to use the combined approach in teaching reading, speaking, reading, and writing.

When the Centre was first established in 1982 (Patrie, 1982, Gatbonton, 1990), both the Canadian and the Chinese members of the planning committee agreed that the teaching approach would be a communicative approach. Although the implications of this decision was not clear then, it led to a situation where one group (the Canadian teachers) possessed the procedural expertise in using the approach but the other group (the Chinese) did not. Indeed, most of the Canadian teachers were hired expressly for their experience with communicative approaches and knew exactly what to do in their classrooms. Most of the Chinese teachers, on the other hand, have never before used a communicative approach, much less seen how it was used (Cray, 1989).

To correct the imbalance, the Canadian and the Chinese teachers were paired in teaching each group of students. It was assumed that if the pairs planned the lessons together and/or team taught their classes, a transfer or exchange of skills between them would automatically ensue. Such an approach has been known to work well in teacher training in western teaching contexts and there was no reason to suspect that it would not work at the CCLC. Despite a lot of goodwill on both sides and a great deal of hard work, however, it became clear that this scheme was unworkable, at best. After several terms of co-teaching, there was no visible sign of skills having changed hands; the Canadian teachers continued to implement the communicative approach in their own way, the Chinese paid lip service to using certain communicative activities but, on the whole, continued with their own methodology. Analysis of the problem revealed two major causes. The first was the fact that the communicative approach, although already firmly established in our classroom, was still without a tightly defined methodology (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 63-96). While this did not bother the Canadians (to some, in fact the very flexibility of the approach was its greatest selling point), it posed a formidable problem to the Chinese teachers. They were expected to master the approach by observing their Canadian counterparts use it but their observations revealed that there seemed to be as many different ways of implementing the approach as there were teachers using it. Their efforts to figure out what to do left them frustrated (Burnaby & Sun, 1989), prompting them to revert to their traditional practices.

The other problem resulted from the differences in the learning styles assumed in a communicative approach and that of Chinese students (Sun Li, 1985; Wang, 1986; Zhou, 1988). The communicative approach assumes learners who are willing to participate in communication activities and expect to learn the language by the mere act of participating. Communication oriented teachers see their role simply as facilitators creating a favourable environment for learning. They no longer see themselves as knowledge dispensers, considering their involvement in giving formal instructions about the language (e.g., grammatical explanations, automatization) to be minimal -- only when doing so facilitates communication.

In contrast, the Chinese teachers consider their student learning to be still dependent upon them providing instructions. Their students' role is to receive such instruction without question, committing them to memory as best they can (Crook, 1985, Maley, 1984; Li Xiaju, 1984). During the lessons, the students read texts, analyze them, abstract rules about them and memorize them. The teachers lead the classes, single out language points to be learned and insure that they are indeed learned or memorized. Finally, learning is considered a serious, even a dull undertaking, so that the game like nature of some of the activities in a communication approach (puzzles, games, problem solving activities) appeared to contribute little to learning. In short, there was a large gap between what the Chinese teachers know and believe to be the way to promote learning and the procedure of the communication activities.

When we decided to adopt a combined methodology, we were motivated by the need to correct this imbalance caused by the Canadians being in the position of experts (by the mere fact that it is their version of the communicative approach that was being used), while the Chinese were in the position of apprentices. We thought a combined methodology integrating elements from western based communicative approach and from traditional Chinese methodology would put our Chinese teachers on a more or less equal footing (to the degree that that was possible) in terms of training needs. The Canadians would continue to be in the position of experts with the communicative component but learners with regards to the formal instructions component. The Canadians would be "learners" in conducting form-focused activities not because they have had no experience with it. Many, particularly, the older ones did. In the last decade, however, due to the increasing popularity of communicative approaches, many have accepted the peripheral role of form focusing activities in language acquisition and sceptical of their usefulness. Part of the training they need is to change these attitudes and encourage them to accept a compromise. In addition, the form focusing activities that the Chinese teachers used were different in some ways from those used in the West when they were still widely used and exposure to these ways are in order. For

their part the Chinese would be in the position of experts with regards to how to use formal instruction techniques in a Chinese context, but learners with regards to handling many aspects of the communicative component of the methodology.

At the same time, both groups would have each something new to learn. This is because the methodology resulting from our combination effort have characteristics that were found in neither of the original components. For example, the communicative component of our approach is more structured than the original communicative model on which it was based. This resulted from our having imposed upon our communication activities the need to meet the triple criteria of being genuinely communicative, inherently repetitive, and multi-functional utterance eliciting. Doing so, we introduced constraints on the freedom of teachers to choose the activities they want. They have to use only those exhibiting the chosen criteria and not any others.

We have also outlined a specific set of procedures on how to conduct the activities, indicating whether one starts with pair work, small group work, etc.. In terms of training needs, the Canadian teachers have to learn how to adjust to this more constrained communicative component and the Chinese teachers have to learn how to conduct them. In the same vein, the form focusing activities can no longer be simply any of those used in traditional teaching methodologies chosen at random or chosen according to a structural syllabus. In our methodology, these have to be carefully chosen only from those that flow naturally from the communication activities and have to meet students' needs made evident during the communicative phase.

To summarize, in combining form and meaning in our methodology we created a methodology that is bigger than the sum of its parts. Using this methodology calls for expertise different from those required in conducting each of its original components. Teacher training has to help the teachers acquire this expertise.

Of course, the teachers also need expertise in adapting the combined communicative approach to teaching the specific skill areas assigned to them because, while general principles are usually the same for all skills, some details are different from skill to skill. Thus, for example, the communicative component in teaching reading may take the form of reading for information while in speaking it could be role playing, games, puzzle, and problem solving.

Classroom Management Skills: Communicative methodologies, in general, require well managed classrooms that allow for pair work, small group work, and teacher-fronted whole class activities to be conducted at any time. But the combined communicative methodology developed for the Centre is particularly demanding for smooth classroom management. The triple criteria we imposed on the activities dictate that most make use of different combinations of these interaction patterns. For example, in the module, Class Profile, described earlier, the activity progression starts from the students working in pairs to interview their classmates, to working in small groups to pool their information, and to working as a class to put the findings together. To orchestrate a smooth transition from one pattern of interaction to another with the minimum of loss of time and effort, it is imperative that teachers have good classroom management skills.

In general, most teachers experienced with communicative approaches are also adept with classroom management techniques. The Chinese teachers, used only to teacher-fronted, one activity teaching, lack experience in managing multi-activity classrooms. Thus, they need special training in even simple matters as forming groups. Techniques such as asking the students to count off by threes or fours and having people with the same number form groups are also useful. Group supervision is another. What the teacher should do while the students are engaged in any of the interaction patterns discussed above is another area where training can be conducted for the Chinese.

Intervention skills: I am defining intervention skills as those skills the teachers need in order to help the students isolate (notice) the target utterances from the array of utterances they are exposed to during the communication and consolidation phases. The activities themselves are already designed with built-in mechanisms to call the students' attention to the target utterances in each lesson. An example of such a mechanism is repetition. Utterances that are repeated a great deal, especially verbatim, should be noted by the learners more than utterances that are not. But when these activities are based in the classroom, the teachers can go a long way in guiding the students to notice these utterances even more. Skills that can serve this purpose include:

- 1) the ability to organize talk so that each person has maximum chances of using and listening to the utterances. This includes the ability to keep control of the class so that people respect turns in speaking and holding the floor.

2) the ability to use sociolinguistic means to interrupt an ongoing communication in order to place at students' disposal the target utterances they need, at the moment of need. How to model correct versions of mispronounced words, how to prompt a missing utterance without disrupting the communicative flow are also examples of such skills.

3) the ability to take advantage of opportunities in the lesson to echo/model utterances presented by the students.

4) the ability to lead the students to produce full version of utterances instead of their short abbreviated versions. While in some cases, one or two word answers may be the sociolinguistically expected replies, it makes little sense to encourage the students just simply to give these short versions replies and not encourage them to attempt the full replies. They are already adept at giving the shorter replies and need no further practise in doing so. In contrast, many of them lack the ability to produce full utterances. Leading the students to use full utterances and still maintain natural communication flow requires great expertise on the part of the teachers.

In most language teaching programs students do not have many role models of language speakers outside the classroom. This makes it imperative for classroom teachers to attempt at all times to expose the students to correct models of the utterances they need. This means taking every opportunity in the lesson to rephrase utterances and to correct errors during and after communication. Of course, one should remember that correcting errors during communication takes different forms (modelling, rephrasing, repeating to conform, repeating to signal misunderstanding) from correcting them after communication (e.g., analyzing sentences, making generalizations). Ability to rephrase, model, correct in and outside communication are all important skills that the teacher must have.

Our observations of Canadian and Chinese teachers using the communicative approach shows that both sets of teachers need special training in developing intervention skills such as outlined above. Both groups have to learn how to elicit, allocate, direct, and manage classroom talk so that students are immersed in rich linguistic input. I have watched both Canadian and Chinese teachers direct their questions to only a few students, and/or are satisfied at only a few answering them. I have also observed teachers asking questions that no one answers or that they themselves answer because they are not sensitive about matching the pace of their questions to the students' answering pace. I have also observed classes where choral, one word answers are given all the time, or where

many students talk at the same time. How much opportunity for leading the students to attend to input is wasted in these classes.

Both groups have to learn what to do with student output and their errors. Chinese teachers, are in general, attentive to student errors and attempt to correct them each time they occur. They have to learn to make their corrections to be less disruptive and intrusive. On the other hand, some Canadian teachers have adopted a non-interventionist stand in the classroom. They view their work as simply facilitating the communication flow, but never interfering with it, never stopping it to do any "direct" teaching. These are the teachers who are influenced by the notion that comprehensible input is sufficient to promote acquisition (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). They do not believe in correcting errors nor in modelling utterances for the students. In the combined methodology we have at the Centre, these teachers need to learn to compromise on these matters.

Pedagogical Expertise: refers to the ability to impart information clearly and directly, even if only in giving instructions or in giving explanations about a formal property of a sentence or the language as a whole. In our combined methodology, success depends on how committed the students are to participating in the activities. The level of their participation and enthusiasm depends on how well they understand the goal and procedure of each activity. In view of this, teachers should have skills to make plain what the goals are. They should be able to explain or demonstrate the procedure that must be followed. They should also be able to use techniques such as brainstorming in order to create the right mind set for the students to do a certain activity.

Linguistic proficiency. A high degree of proficiency in English is required for teachers using this methodology. The level of proficiency should be such that the teachers can spot erroneous and faulty utterances quickly. As we have seen earlier the ability to understand the difficulty of the students as well as to what has to be done to overcome the difficulty is crucial to the success of the methodology.

The native speakers of English obviously have no problem with regards to proficiency but the Chinese teachers do. Many of them join the teaching faculty at the CCLC with skills English ranging from low intermediate to fluent. In some cases, their lack of proficiency causes them to feel insecure about their inability to handle students' questions or get involved in unprepared, unrehearsed activities. A low degree of proficiency also makes the Chinese teachers' task of observing/recording and judging students' problems difficult. Since the success of the methodology rests a great deal on their ability to help their students be aware of

and then overcome their errors it is imperative that any lack of ability in detecting these errors be addressed in the teacher training program.

To summarize the training needs: There are areas where both groups of teachers have training needs and areas where only the Chinese do. For example, both groups of teachers have to improve weaknesses in their procedural knowledge that spring from having to use a combined communicative methodology. Although some elements of this methodology are familiar to the teacher the resulting methodology is really "new". For example, the Canadian teachers have to gain ease and expertise in conducting form focusing activities, particularly those used in Chinese traditional methodologies. The Chinese, on other hand, have to learn appropriate procedures in conducting communication activities in the classroom. Both have to learn to use the new methodology to teach their particular skill area.

Both groups have to learn all, if not most, of the intervention skills I listed here. First, of all, the Canadians have to learn to be more interventionist (i.e., do more direct teaching, modelling, etc.); the Chinese, to be less so. Both groups have to learn to elicit, allocate, and direct classroom talk to benefit all members. Both have to modify their attitudes towards error correction, about giving formal explanations, about modelling and must learn appropriate techniques from prompting and interrupting during ongoing communication acts.

The Chinese have to learn classroom management techniques; particularly, in organizing group activities and from making a smooth transition from pair to group work to whole class activity and any other combination thereof. They need to improve their skills and confidence in using techniques such as brainstorming, skimming and scanning in reading, conducting feedback sessions in writing. Finally, they need more opportunities to increase their linguistic proficiency and their cultural knowledge.

Teacher Training Techniques

I will now discuss some of the teacher training approach and techniques we have used to provide our teachers with the expertise they need in using our combined methodology.

1. Workshops and demonstrations: Ever since the start of the program we have relied on the use of workshops to implement teacher training. The following types of workshops have been used:

a. Curriculum Development workshops. Although curriculum development workshops are not usually listed as teacher training devices, we found them to be very useful. Our teachers' participation in these workshops was merely a function of the fact that curriculum development occurred simultaneously with teaching the program. Yet, the insights gained because of it were extremely valuable for teacher training. During these workshops the teachers participated in decision making about the format of and characteristics of the pedagogical activities to be used within the methodology. Many were involved in developing and critiquing lesson plans in an effort to refine these characteristics. The model lesson plans were later used as prototypes for the materials developed to support the curriculum.

b. Orientation workshops: Once support materials have been developed for each of the skill areas, these were given to teachers to try out in their classes. During two or three week orientation workshops held at the beginning of each term, teachers who have already trial tested the materials were asked to demonstrate certain techniques used in them; e.g., brainstorming, skimming and scanning, role playing, setting and supervising group work, conducting jigsaw activities. The exchange of ideas that occurred during and after these demonstrations were helpful in clarifying fuzzy aspects of the methodology.

2. Skill teams: During the term, teachers teaching the same skill formed support groups in using the teaching materials for that skill area. Meeting at least once a week, they discussed the aims, goals, and procedures of the weekly lessons. Teachers who have already used certain materials before others discussed how they used them, giving suggestions on how they should be used.

3. Classroom observations: During the term, classroom observations were used as teacher training devices. The Centre's academic advisor and head teacher observed (sometimes video taped) teachers using the materials. Feedback sessions after these observations were valuable forums for discussing teaching techniques that should be kept or improved.

4. Team teaching: Team teaching has always been the centrepiece of our teacher training program. As we have already seen different team teaching schemes have been used ranging from teachers being paired to teach the class, to teachers of similar classes working together to plan but not co-teach the class, to having certain teachers act as mentors to other teachers and so on (Smith and Gatbonton, 1990).

Teacher training is still going on at the Centre as the full curriculum and its support materials are being implemented. If one were to summarize the insights we have gained in training teachers to implement a new combined methodology, they are as follows: Although the elements that make up a combined methodology are not new, the resulting product is. In training the teachers to use this type of methodology, it is imperative to define exactly what expertise is needed and then device a training program to promote this expertise. In implementing a communicative methodology or a combined methodology with large communicative component, we found that training is most needed in developing classroom management skills and intervention skills.

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